CLIMATE

132 This region has a wide range of temperatures through the seasons. During the four-month long winter the temperature sometimes reaches -18°C (0°F).

Dust storms added to the intense cold make outdoor life virtually impossible. The rivers freeze by the middle of October and often remain frozen until the following March. In summer, the relentless sun beating down from a cloudless sky for days in succession often builds up the temperature to over 30°C (86°F) and even 38°C (100°F) is not a rarity. This climate is shared by both the western half of the region, which is of the "cold steppe dry winter" type and the eastern half which falls within the "cool, dry winter" category.[8]

In good years, rain brings to this region an average of 500 millimeters (20 in.) of precipitation per year, usually falling in July and August, which constitute the local planting season. The southern portion, in comparison, gets a little more rain. Often, however, rainfall either exceeds or fails to reach this level; the result has been frequent years of drought or flood. The fluctuation is so great that it causes the farmers to trust their fate to heaven which they traditionally placate by erecting numerous little temples.

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[8] Ch'u Shao-t'ang, op. cit., p. 37; Cressey, op. cit., p. 162.

The frequent floods, caused by the untimely rainstorms and poor drainage on the flatlands, also contribute an uncommon feature to the landscape -- wooden junks perched here and there on parched dry land without a drop of water for miles around. The boats lie in readiness for use when the next rainstorm submerges the land under a shallow expanse of water.[9] There may be fewer and fewer of these stranded boats now -- according to Peking claims -- as flood control is continued and reforestation is initiated in certain areas.[10]

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[9] Ibid., pp. 168-70.

[10] The forestation project in the Yung-ting River area, for instance, has planted a belt of forests along the Ta-hsing, Ku[illegible]-an, Yung-ch'ing and An-tz'u line, totaling some 3,100 kilometers. Ch'u Shao-t'ang, op. cit., p. 42.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

Annex "A," Subparagraph 1q,
Sociological Background

PUBLIC WELFARE

I. INTRODUCTION

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Under the Nationalist Government during the war years (1937-1945), the first and foremost agency in the work of public welfare was the National Relief Commission. It was the pivot upon which China's machinery of relief and rehabilitation depended. Through its various efforts from 1938 to 1944, a reported 30,152,131 war and famine refugees were benefited.[1] In addition to immediate war and disaster relief, it operated clinics, occupational relief works, and organizations for the training and care of children. A number of private and semi-private welfare and relief agencies were active, and most of these were founded to meet the needs of war time conditions.[2] For women and children, there were the National Association for Refugee Children, the National Child Welfare Association of China, and the Women's Advisory Council. For Servicemen, there were the Friends of the Wounded Society and the YMCA Emergency Service to Soldiers. And for general war work

1. China Handbook 1937-1945, compiled by Chinese Ministry of Information, New York, Macmillan, 1947, pp. 521-37.

2. Ibid.

731 there were the China Wartime Relief Association and the National Chinese Women's Association for War Relief. Foreign agencies such as the United China Relief and the American Red Cross in China, and British and Canadian contributions distributed through various mediums, also helped to aid China in her distress.

657 The Ministry of Social Affairs as a department under the Executive Yuan of the Nationalist Government was established in November 1940. Throughout the 1940's, during the war years in Chungking as well as in the postwar years in Nanking, this ministry led and guided the development of public welfare and helped to co-ordinate the work of the relief and welfare organizations. The following chart will give some idea of the state of public welfare in 1947 in North China.[3]

3. Chung-hua Min-kuo T'ung-chi Nien-chien [Statistical Yearbook of China], Nanking, Bureau of Statistics, 1948, pp. 365-72.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

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648 On November 9, 1943, China became a member of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA). The Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (CNRRA), as a department of the Nationalist Government on the ministerial level, was established in January 1945, as was the China Office of UNRRA. In co-operation the two administrations planned and worked on the gigantic problems of the relief and rehabilitation of postwar China.[4] Despite the great contribution to Chinese welfare resulting from the efforts of peaceful projects of this sort, the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration was suspended when the Chinese Communists became the victors on the mainland of China, although such efforts, had they continued, might well have been used by the Communists for purposes of their own.

II. CALAMITIES SINCE 1949

731 Since the establishment of the Communist regime in China, many natural disasters have occurred. Droughts, floods, locust and insect invasions, frost, windstorms, and hail-storms have caused famines in the rural districts and

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4. China Handbook 1937-1945, pp. 538-41

●731 and throughout the nation. An anti-Communist source[5] estimates the number of people in China adversely affected since 1949 by natural calamities, climaxed by the great flood of 1954 as follows:

1949	60,000,000
1950	38,000,000
1951	28,000,000
1952	33,000,000
1953	47,000,000
1954	180,000,000

No region has escaped entirely from these disasters. If there are differences among them, they are only a matter of degree.

As if these natural calamities were not disastrous enough, the people on the mainland of China suffered further abuse from man-made adversities -- the Land Reform Movement, the Three-Anti and Five-Anti campaigns, the conflict in Korea, and the government's "planned purchase" of agricultural products. The number

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5. Kung-fei Ti Chiu-chi Kung-tso [Relief Work Under the Chinese Communists], Taipei, 6th Section, Central Committee, Nationalist Party, 1955, pp. 5-6. It should be noted that source references originating in Taipei are almost invariably sponsored by the Chinese Nationalist Party. As well as being anti-Communist in intent, they sometimes serve as a media for pro-Nationalist propaganda.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

731 of people who have been affected by the Communist quest for power is estimated to have been about 90,000,000 during the first four years of the Communist regime.[6]

In the North China Region, spring and early summer droughts are followed by insect invasions and in many sections there are autumn floods. Certain counties, such as Fu-p'ing and Ku-an in Hopei Province, suffered this cycle of calamities year after year. In 1951, no village was spared among the 204 villages in Fu-p'ing, and in Ku-an the annual crop in 1951 was valued at less than 50 per cent of the value expected in an ordinary year.[7] North China is also one of the principal cotton producing districts of China, but certain insects especially harmful to cotton cause serious trouble in these areas. A report in the summer of 1952 revealed that the cotton in as many as 45 counties in Hopei Province had been ruined.[8] Since cotton is most important to the Chinese people, this loss of a source of revenue has increased the burden of hardship.

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6. Ibid.

7. Ho-pei Jih-pao [Hopei Daily], Paoting, September 23, 1951, p. 1.

8. P'ien-ti Tsai-huang Ai Ta-lu [Widespread Calamities on the Mainland], Taipei, 6th Section, Central Committee, Nationalist Party, 1952, pp. 49-50.

III. COMMUNIST RELIEF AND WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS

731 After the Hwai River flood of 1949, the Central Relief Committee was formed (Feb. 1950) under the Government Administration Council as a temporary but integral part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Later, similar committees were established in the provinces and municipalities. According to reports from various quarters this organization has not accomplished any great amount of relief work.[9]

In April 1950, during the All-China People's Relief Conference, the People's Relief Administration of China was organized as the successor to the China Liberated Areas Relief Administration. This was not a government department but a "People's organization." Soong Ching-ling (Madame Sun Yat-sen) was elected chairman. After the outbreak of war in Korea, this organization assumed control of all charities financed by the United States. Four years later, it was reported that branch offices of the People's Relief Administration had been estab-

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9. Relief Work Under the Chinese Communists, pp. 5-6, lists all of the welfare organizations described in this study. References to the same organizations are to be found in Jen-min Shou-ts'e [People's Handbook 1955], a Chinese Communist source.

731 lished in twenty-three large cities throughout the China Mainland. In North China, branch offices have been established in Peking, Tientsin, and Taiyuan.[10] Meetings and conferences have been held, but the only actual relief work reported was the collection in 1950 of 6,800,000 outfits of winter clothing for the flood refugees in northern Anhwei.[11]

In order to combat the increase in unemployment, the Labor Employment Committee was established in July 1952 under the Government Administration Council. Regional committees were formed on lower administrative levels in the provinces, counties, and municipalities.[12]

744 The Red Cross Society in China has been in existence for fifty years. In August 1950 the Communists assumed control of the Red Cross and reorganized it under the leadership of the Ministry of Health. It has done more medical work than relief work, especially at construction projects where large numbers of laborers are congregated. In North China, medical and epidemic-prevention corps were sent to such construction projects as the Feng-t'ai -- Sha-ch'eng Railway and Kuan-t'ing Reservoir, both in the province of Hopei.[13]

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10. People's Handbook, 1955, pp. 396-97.
11. Relief Work under the Chinese Communists, pp. 6-8.
12. Ibid., p. 8.
13. Ibid.

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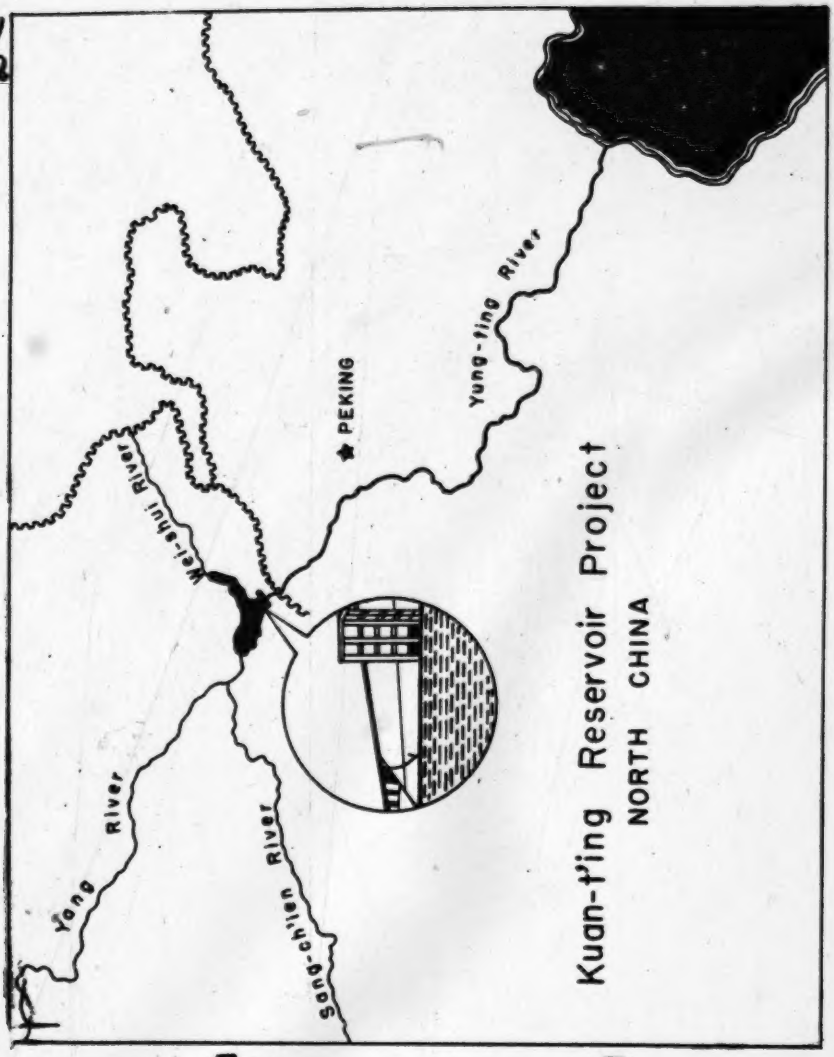

[Facing p. 682--E]

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621 trip to the hsien city and dealing with the yamen. One of the village elders estimated that this cooperative system saved at least $170 that would have to be paid for meals and travel under the old individual system. That amount would mean a saving of only 50 cents per family, so the amount might very well have been considerably more.

The cooperative tax collection was one of the model village activities that took root in Chai Ch'eng and was continued year after year.

Village Granary

621 731 A village granary was organized in the latter part of 1914 to help provide against famine and other calamities and to make it possible to aid the poor of the village. The farm families were divided into three groups, according to the amount of their land. After the harvest the first-class farmers contributed 0.07 tou per mu of land, second-class farmers 0.05 tou per mu, and third-class farmers 0.03 tou per mu. The amount collected from each family was entered in the village accounts. Special contributions were specially recorded to encourage a philanthropic spirit. A manager and five assistants operated the granary.

The granary regulations provided that the villagers might borrow grain from the granary, but they should give a pledge for their loan and pay interest when they returned the grain, generally after the harvest. If they borrowed 9 tou they should return 10 tou.

When a considerable amount of grain was accumulated, the granary manager could decide, with the village head, when it was a good time to sell the grain. The money secured was to be loaned at one per cent per month.

It was proposed that in times of famine or other calamity the money held by the granary should be used to buy grain, which, together with any in the granary, should be distributed as a loan to the poor families of the village. They were expected to repay the loans, if they could, when they had a good harvest.

The collection of grain by the granary was discontinued in 1927 because of the civil war, extra taxes, and hard times. The granary funds, however, were retained. In 1931 the amount was $1,200.

Cooperative Benefit Society

621 241 The Cooperative Benefit Society was started as the result of the suggestion made by Mr. Mi Shu-p'ing that the village should advance

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gods and the gate gods generally had been given up by the Chai Ch'eng families.

The Admire the Sages Society was organized by the school teachers in 1906 to encourage the people to imitate the good people of the past. In 1913 other educated people were included in the society membership. The Mi brothers and other prominent men gave lectures at the one or two meetings that were held every year. After 1921 meetings were held only every three years. The principal of the village school could call a meeting of the society, but it was completely inactive in 1931.

Promotion of Agriculture

From 1904 to 1908 Ting Hsien suffered from drought and the farmers had poor crops. Mr. Mi, the village head, and his assistant, Mr. Hsü, consulted with the other village elders as to how they might encourage the villagers to dig wells to provide water for irrigation. In 1906 eight wells were dug on village land as a demonstration, prizes were offered to encourage the poor farmers to dig wells, and arrangements were made whereby farmers, in need of money to finance the cost of a well, might borrow half the cost of the necessary materials. The loans were to be repaid after the harvest. Over ten years' time more than one hundred wells were dug.

Following the success of this program, the village elders encouraged the owners of small fields to dig cooperative wells where the individual fields were not large enough to warrant the digging of separate wells. There was great need for such cooperation as the study of a group of 3,763 fields belonging to 1,136 families in four other villages showed that only 7.9 per cent of the fields had 10 or more mu, and only 0.7 per cent had 25 or more mu.[2] A good well could irrigate from 25 to 30 mu.

The village elders provided that where land was held by a mortgagee he should pay his share of the cost of digging a cooperative well but he should be repaid by the mortgagor when he redeemed the property. Where land was held under lease the owners should pay the cost of the well, but should be reimbursed by increasing the rent. The village elders set up regulations for settling disagreements between mortgagors and mortgagees and between tenants and landlords over the cost of the wells and the increased rent.

Village regulations provided for the care of the public wells and the

2. See Chapter X.

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621 185 312 731 cooperative wells. The latter were to be looked after in turn by the various owners. Those responsible were required to report to the village office before they covered the wells to protect them from frost. If the well was damaged because of improper coverage the person responsible was required to repair the damage and pay a fine of five dollars. The village office was to keep a record of the owners of the cooperative wells and the time when each was to be responsible for the care of the well. The regulations required that after the wells had been covered for the winter and after they had been opened in the spring the village officers visit the fields and inspect the wells to determine whether they were being kept in proper condition. The well digging program received a further impetus from the drought of 1920–21.

In 1928 Chai Ch'eng had 390 wells, 96 for the domestic use of the 366 families and 294 for irrigation. A large proportion of the crop area of the village must have been irrigated, for the average area per well was 33 mu. Chai Ch'eng had the largest number of wells of any of the 62 villages in the Experimental District, four times the average number.

621 241 625 Watching the ripening crops to prevent theft before harvest time was another agricultural activity of the village. The watchmen were held responsible for any loss there might be through theft. This work had been done previously by the Green Crop Society, but in 1904 the village officers and elders adopted a series of regulations and employed eight men to watch the crops before the autumn harvest. Two men were assigned to each quarter of the compass. By 1913, when the crop watching was made part of the program of the Agriculture and Forestry Society, it was possible to protect the crops with only four watchers.

The wages of the crop watchers, which one report gave as 10 cents a day plus food, were met by contributions from the land owners. These were paid in kind and were graduated according to the amount of land held by each owner. The field report states that those with from 20 to 50 mu were to pay three gills (0.03 of a tou) of grain per mu; those with from 50 to 100 mu paid five gills per mu, while those who had more than 100 mu contributed seven gills per mu. If there was any surplus it apparently was kept as a special earmarked account rather than added to the general funds of the village.

In 1905, the year after the village engaged the crop watchers, regulations were adopted to cover the protection of trees planted in the village area. Two men were engaged to watch the trees and protect them

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651 The tax payment of $9,500 in 1929 was divided $5,000 for the province and $4,500 for the hsien. From 1927 to 1929 the amount increased 22 per cent, 40 per cent if the 1927 amount for horses, etc., is omitted. From 1921 to 1929 the increase was 100 per cent, 130 per cent if the 1921 amount for horses is omitted. The 1928 tax of $9,105 was divided $4,829 for pigs, $2,987 for cattle and sheep, $1,289 for mules, horses, and donkeys.

The following figures give the 1931 rates for transportation licenses:

		Day	*Month*	*6 Mos.*	*Year*
Carts:	1 animal	10 cops.	$0.50	$2.50	$ 4.00
	2 animal	20 "	1.00	5.00	8.00
	3 animal	30 "	1.50	7.50	12.00
	4 animal — double 2 animal				
	5 animal — double 3 animal				
Ricksha			$ .30	$1.50	$ 2.50

651 Remission or postponement of part or all of the land taxes was one
• 731 method of giving general community relief when an area suffered from flood, drought, locusts, or other natural disaster. The details of such adjustments are given in Chapter XX. When there was fighting in an area the military generally collected extra taxes and levied special assessments for food, transportation and man power. There was often looting in the actual fighting area. The extra taxes were sometimes said to be the prepayment of taxes for later years. Sometimes the extra assessment was softened by being labeled for a special need.

651 In 1926 and 1927 a 60 per cent surtax was added to the wine taxes. It was allocated to the army. In 1928 the extra levy was cut to 30 per cent and was designated for relief. Similar surtaxes were levied on tobacco.

When the land owners went to pay the second half of their 1926 provincial taxes they had to pay three times the usual amount. Besides the regular amount for local government activity a full year's extra taxes were collected for the army's anti-Red campaign. In 1927 an extra year's tax was collected both spring and fall, three year's taxes in one.

The extra tax collected in the spring of 1928 was 61 per cent of the year's total. It was divided 58.5 per cent for rehabilitation and 2.5 per cent for relief. In the three years the extra land taxes totaled $389,158. In addition the requisitioning and looting of the army cost Ting Hsien almost $1,000,000 in 1927 and 1928.[3]

3. See Chapter XX.

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88 for irrigation and 43 for domestic use, or one domestic well for every two for irrigation. Counting both domestic and irrigating wells, there was an average of 0.87 wells per family.

Table 73 gives our count of the wells inside and outside the villages, the average number of mu of farm land per well, and the average number of families per well inside the villages. The average for the hsien was 35 mu per irrigating well and 3.5 families, or 20 persons, per domestic well. Only about half of the farm land was under irrigation. The number of mu watered by a sample of 471 wells in three villages is given in Table 74. The average was some 22 mu per well.

While the average number of persons per domestic well was 20, there was a wide range in the number actually served. Some supplied only a single family. Others furnished water for groups of families and supplied over 100 persons. The numbers using a sample of 183 wells are shown in Table 75.

In many courtyards either the space was not available or else no effort was made to separate the well and the latrine. In our sample of 183 domestic wells two-thirds of the wells were within 40 feet of the latrine and one in six was within 20 feet. However, because of the Chinese system of saving night soil and using it as fertilizer on the farm, there probably was little likelihood of contamination by seepage or surface drainage. (See Table 76.)

The average depth of the wells was some 21 feet. Some were less than 10 feet. None were over 45 feet deep. Fifty-nine per cent were between 15 and 25 feet, which meant moderate lift and moderate digging and operating costs.

The average depth of the water table was some 13 feet below the surface. In a few wells it was less than two feet below the ground. The deepest reported was between 38 and 40 feet. For two-thirds of the wells the depth of the water table was between six and 16 feet.

The average depth of water standing in the wells was some eight feet. While the measurements ranged from less than two feet to over 18 feet, in 80 per cent of the wells the water depth was between four and 10 feet.

The drought and famine of 1920–21 gave a great impetus to well digging. At that time the American Red Cross made a grant to assist in digging wells in Ting Hsien and five neighboring hsien. The Red Cross funds were for the labor cost. The workers had to be residents of the

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731 312 village where the well was dug and in need of relief. The land owners were to furnish the materials. The average labor cost was about $30.00 per well; the material cost about the same. Red Cross aid was given for 3,572 wells in the six hsien. Of these 463 were in Ting Hsien. Our investigators reported that, because families applying for aid had to be investigated and a tablet had to be attached to the well showing that it had been dug with Red Cross help, many families were unwilling to accept the offered help. However, the offer of foreign aid stimulated the Industrial Bureau of the hsien government to offer similar assistance to those who wanted to dig wells. At that time the Industrial Bureau imported some well digging machines that expedited the work, after the local workers had learned the necessary technique. Later Mr. Mi Chu-wu, the village head of Chai Ch'eng, bought a machine for use in that area and went to the neighboring villages to urge the farmers to dig additional wells. Residents of Chai Ch'eng paid $7.00 for the use of the machine. Other villages paid $12.00. In 1923 the Industrial Bureau sent two of the Chai Ch'eng well diggers to Ts'ao Chou Fu in Shantung to teach the people there the new technique.

How the impetus given to well digging by the drought of 1920–21 continued during the next decade is indicated by the C.I.F.R.C. figures showing when the irrigating wells were dug.

	Number	*Per Cent*
Before 1915	13,876	34.7
1916–1920	5,778	14.5
1921–1925	9,771	24.4
1926–1930	10,554	26.8
	39,979	100.0

More than 50 per cent were dug after 1920.

312 In a study of the wells in three villages we found that 60 per cent of the 471 irrigating wells were dug from 1921 to 1928 and another 23 per cent from 1912 to 1920. Twenty-five wells, 5.2 per cent, were reported to have been dug before 1894. The oldest one was said to date from the reign of the Emperor Chia Ch'ing (1797–1820).

It was a very different story for the 183 domestic wells. Only 14 of those, 7.7 per cent, had been dug after 1920. Forty-four, 24 per cent, were dug between 1912 and 1920. Fifty-six, 31 per cent, were at least thirty-five years old, dug before 1894. Five were said to have been dug before 1796. The oldest was reported to be more than 265 years old, dug

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CHAPTER XX

Calamities

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THE TING HSIEN histories listed 145 calamities during 1,821 years. An earthquake in 106 A.D. was the earliest. Hail and floods in 1926 were the latest listed. One calamity every 12 or 13 years was the average, but, as some years had more than one calamity, a better average was trouble every 15½ years.

Two centuries, the fourth and 12th, had no disasters or calamities. The bad years were scattered throughout the other centuries, but, as might be expected, more are noted in the later centuries. The records, undoubtedly, have improved and more of the less serious losses are listed. Before 1500 none of the centuries had more than five years with difficulties. After 1500 all had more than 11. Twenty-two years were listed in the 17th century and 25 in the 19th. When completed, the 20th century probably will have the largest number. Twelve of the first 26 years were listed—every year from 1915 through 1926.

Fourteen different kinds of events were included in the list of calamities. In order of frequency they were: flood, drought, locusts, hail, earthquakes, epidemics, good years, thunder, frost, storm, snow, panic at the pagoda, fire, and Boxers. Civil wars, which for the civilian population were disasters comparable with flood or drought, were not listed.

Floods were reported 35 times, an average of once every 52 years. Twenty-eight droughts were listed. Locusts appeared in sufficient numbers to be mentioned 21 times, hail 17 times. There were 14 earthquakes and eight serious epidemics, cholera or plague. It is most suggestive to find that seven good years were included in the list of calamities. Bumper crops evidently made for such low prices that the year was an outstanding one in the minds of the people. The other calamities were all mentioned less than six times.

Although Ting Hsien has been the scene of considerable fighting

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731 through the centuries and, in the language of the people, soldiers were one of the scourges of the countryside, they were mentioned only once in the list of calamities. That was Boxer Year, 1900. Evidently, in writing the history of a locality, it has not been "good form" to mention the times the community has suffered from the movements of armed forces. It might reflect on the armies of the emperor.

The earliest flood reported was in 521. There was another in 575, but no more were listed for almost 500 years. The report of the floods of 1048 states that the magistrate Han Ch'i worked out plans for relief. There were heavy rains and floods the next two years, but then no further flood is mentioned until 1407. At that time, the records show, taxes were remitted to help the flood sufferers. In 1553 the floods were so severe that the people sold their children and ate the bark of trees; there was even some cannibalism. Three years later, in 1556, it rained so hard in the sixth month that the leaves fell off the trees, the crops were drowned, and houses were destroyed.

Floods were reported for four consecutive years in 1653–1656. The spring rains of 1654 failed so badly that the early crops suffered from drought, but the fall crops were again flooded by the heavy summer rains.

In the eighth month of 1696 it rained for eight days and nights and destroyed the crops. In 1775 water was running on the land for 40 days. In 1801 some 87 per cent of the families in Tung Pan village emigrated because of the flood. Only some 25 out of 200 families remained. In the seventh month of 1867 it rained for seven days and nights and the ears of grain sprouted.

In 1917 the T'ang and Sha rivers and all the small streams overflowed. Houses were damaged in 302 of the 453 villages and the crops were damaged in 335 villages. One hundred and ninety-seven villages either had no crops, or harvested less than 10 per cent of the usual yield. The smallest damage was 30 per cent, reported by 24 villages. The land damaged was 559,615 mu, about 40 per cent of the farm area. Thirty-five thousand chien (rooms) were destroyed. This was about 8 per cent of the hsien total. The value of the buildings destroyed was some $2,000,000. A total of 99,468 people, some 25 per cent of the population, reported serious or very serious damage.

The floods of 1919 and 1922 damaged only two villages; that of 1926 damaged eight villages. If they were not so recent, the floods probably

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would not have been included in the list of calamities. Thirteen villages were damaged in 1923, 89 in 1924, and 69 in 1925. The rest of the 35 floods are listed, but are not given any special comment.

It is not until 1801 that the records report the amount of flood relief in terms of money. That year 9,863.62 taels were given for relief. In 1822 relief totaled 3,489.2 tan (bags) of grain and 2,095.83 taels. The next year, 1823, the amount was 2,814.06 tan and 1,542.59 taels. In 1917 the magistrate and the gentry secured some $3,727 by the sale of grain from the village granaries, raised some $1,954 by subscription, and distributed these amounts in cash grants. The poorest adults were given 1,000 cash. This was equivalent to 83 cents silver, as the exchange rate was 1,200 cash for $1.00. Those who were a little better off received 700 cash, 58 cents. Half of these amounts were given to the children of the needy families.

Remission and postponement of taxes have long been methods whereby the government lightened, somewhat, the burden of those who had suffered from disaster. The usual procedure was for the hsien magistrate to report the disaster to the provincial authorities, giving an estimate of the number of villages and the amount of land damaged. The magistrate of a neighboring hsien then was ordered to investigate and report. In 1917 70 per cent of the taxes were remitted for those who had suffered a total loss of their crop. The other amounts were 60 per cent for 90 per cent loss; 40 per cent for 80 per cent loss; 20 per cent for 70 per cent loss; and 10 per cent for a loss of 50 or 60 per cent. Unremitted taxes were not collected that year, but were spread over the two succeeding years. Where the damage was around 40 per cent, the taxes were postponed until the fall of the next year. Similar figures were used in connection with flood damage in 1919 and in the years 1922 to 1926 inclusive.

Chou ch'angs, porridge kitchens, were opened in four villages in 1917 to provide food for some of the neediest people in the four winter months. They could give, however, only a relatively small amount of help as each chou ch'ang could provide for only 120 persons.

The food shortage resulting from the flood of 1917 raised the price of grain. To keep the price at a minimum, a grain office, p'ing t'iao chü, was opened in the city with branches in each of the six districts. Those who were given tickets were allowed to buy a ten days' supply of millet and kaoliang amounting to two he, about one-half pound, a day per

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731 adult and 1 he per child. The grain was sold at a price set by the Chamber of Commerce. The price was kept down by remitting all taxes and transportation charges, omitting the commission regularly paid the men who measured the grain, and getting the villagers to transport the grain free of charge. To be eligible for a p'ing t'iao chü ticket a family must be classed as poor or very poor, or have less than 10 mu of land and more than five in the family, or be a peddler or a farm laborer with no land.

A refugee camp was run from January to May in the city Ch'eng Huang temple to care for 120 old or weak persons. Each district was allowed to send 20. The inmates were given two meals a day, but ordinarily were expected to bring their own bedding. The operating cost was met by village appropriations, by contributions, and by the use of some of the money appropriated for the repair of the granaries. The hsien government contributed only if there was a deficit.

The earliest drought listed was in 431. The granaries were opened and grain was given to the people. The drought of 483 must have been very severe for it is reported that the people of Ch'i Chou and Ting Chou fed the refugees on the road. The report specially states that 947,000 people did not die. From 510 to 938, there was a period of 428 years without a reported drought and then, from 943 to 1290, another long period of 347 years. There were three later periods of more than 100 years between droughts, 1291–1440, 1442–1552, and 1712–1816.

Another authority[1] reports four severe droughts in Chihli province during the first half of the 14th century, but these are not listed in the Ting Hsien histories.

In 1290 the people were given grain for 60 days, starting in the third month. In 1553 there was a drought both spring and fall. There was a great famine in 1561. In 1685 there was a drought in the spring and fall. One third of the taxes paid in grain were remitted. In 1689 the last half of the taxes was remitted and grain was distributed from the 10th month to the 4th month of the next year. The same was true in 1870. In 1877 there was a great famine in North China. There was nothing growing on the land for thousands of li. Many refugees died along the road and the hungry people resorted to cannibalism. There was also a drought in 1878.

In 1920 all of Ting Hsien suffered from drought. One hundred sixty-

1. Raymond T. Moyer, "The Aridity of North China", *Journal of North China Branch, Royal Asiatic Society*, 1932.

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933,1954) AF12 North China AF12

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three villages, 86 per cent, reported serious damage to the crops. Two hundred and eighty thousand mu of land, 20 per cent of the farm area, were affected. The dry spring made it almost impossible to plant the unirrigated land. Irrigated land was planted, but later on many of the wells went dry and the locusts came in from the neighboring hsien. The villagers tried to kill them for "several tens" of days, but could not keep them from damaging the crops. Ten villages reported 100 per cent loss and 52 villages more than 70 per cent damage. Another 59 villages had 50 to 60 per cent loss and 52 had 30 to 40 per cent loss. Taxes were remitted according to the amounts of damage.

A survey of the hsien found 9,877 very poor families and 7,998 poor families, about 25 per cent of all the families in the hsien. The number of individuals involved was reported as 99,700. Of these, 51.7 per cent were males and 48.3 per cent were females. The average size of the families was 5.1 persons for the very poor families and 6.2 for the poor families. Relief was given by the government and local relief associations and not a little came from outside organizations. One thousand dollars was given by the provincial government. The Hopei and Peking branches of the China International Famine Relief Commission gave 98 bags of wheat seed. The American Board Mission gave 41 bags. A local philanthropist donated 250 suits of cotton clothes. The American Red Cross sent funds to help relieve the distress. Some of this money was used for work relief in the building of the new roads in the city and from the city to the railroad station in the west suburb; some was used to assist in the digging of wells for irrigation in Ting Hsien and five neighboring hsien. With this help, 463 wells were dug in Ting Hsien and 3,109 in the neighboring hsien during the spring and summer of 1921. There was serious drought damage again in both 1922 and 1925. The district to the north and east of Tinghsien city suffered the most. After the 1922 drought the hsien government and the China International Famine Relief Commission both helped to develop the well digging program. The 1925 drought gave added impetus to the well digging.

In 284 rain and hail damaged the crops. In 476 some of the hailstones were said to be about two feet in circumference and to have come down with force enough to kill some of the farmers. In 945 a hailstorm uprooted some of the trees in the Pei Yueh Miao. In the fourth month of 1577 the largest hailstones were like eggs. In 1682 the damage was so

2:Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF12 North China AF12

731 severe that the government remitted three-tenths of the grain taxes. In 1858 the largest hailstones were like rice bowls and many of the roof tiles were broken. In May, 1915, hail fell for an hour and damaged the wheat crop of 10 villages. The highest loss was 70 per cent; the lowest under 40 per cent. There was still hope for a fall crop, so the government remitted only 40 per cent of the taxes of one village, 30 per cent for two, and 20 per cent for four villages.

Hail added to the damage from flood in both 1917 and 1920. In 1917 it affected 335 villages and 597,045 mu of land, 42 per cent of the land and 74 per cent of the villages. Relief and remission of taxes were included in the flood relief program.

Some of the hailstones that fell on July 8, 1918, were reported to be as large as eggs and four to five inches thick. In 1923 the largest stones were the size of eggs; the smallest the size of bullets. Forty villages and 16,541 mu of land were affected.

Ting Hsien lies in a region that is not usually affected by frost before harvest time. Only three serious frosts are mentioned. In 463 the damage in the seventh month was so extensive that the taxes were remitted. In 1882 the buckwheat was damaged by frost in the eighth month. In 1922 the spring rains held off until June so many of the fields were planted with buckwheat. In the eighth month, when the buckwheat was in bloom, a storm brought cold and frost. The entire hsien was affected. Ninety-nine villages had 50 to 60 per cent damage. For these villages all of the extra taxes and one-tenth of the regular taxes were remitted. The rest of the regular taxes were to be collected during the next two years.

731 242 Locusts were an ever present threat to the Ting Hsien crops as a few were seen almost every year. Some were reported every year except one from 1915 to 1922. In some years only a few villages reported any damage: in 1918 only one village. It was six villages in 1922, 13 in 1919, and 18 in 1915. In 1920, at the time of the big drought, 20 per cent of the villages saw some locusts and the crops were damaged in 64 villages, 14 per cent.

Only the years of serious damage were listed before 1911. From 838 to 1891 only 14 years were listed as bad locust years, an average of one every 75 years. In the fall of 838 the grass and leaves were all eaten. In the fifth month of 1292 the leaves of the mulberry trees were eaten so no silk worms could be raised that year. In the spring of 1591 all the

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crops were eaten. The worst damage was in the area to the south of the city.

In 1705 the summer locusts flew in such swarms that they covered the sun, but it is reported that they were soon killed. In 1825 so many locusts were flying together that the sun could not shine through. They stayed for three days.

Killing the locusts or scaring them away was about the only protection the farmers had. As soon as any locusts were seen everyone turned out. Gongs and other noise-makers were beaten to keep the locusts from settling on the crops. Beaters of all sorts, spades, forks, flat pieces of wood, shoe soles nailed on sticks, brooms, and bundles of willow twigs were used to kill the locusts. Ditches were dug and the locusts driven into them were buried there. Fires were lighted at night to attract the insects so they could be killed.

The government often offered a bounty to encourage the people to kill the locusts. In the spring of 1915 the rate was 10 cash (0.73 cents) per catty. Only 762 catties were caught. The bounty, plus some special prizes amounting to $3.50, brought the expenditure to $9.05. In the fall of the same year 5,945 catties were caught. As they were caught at the border of the hsien, the reward was doubled. It totaled $82. Eleven dollars food money for the police for the days they helped with the work made the total expenditure $93.

In 1920 64 villages caught 30,656 catties, some 20 tons. That year the reward was 50 cash per catty. It was to be paid half from the tax funds and half from funds secured by the village heads. The police expenditure amounted to $155.73.

There was considerable damage to the main fall crops in 1921. In 1922 the crops of six villages were attacked, but the locusts were quickly caught, so there was not widespread damage. The loss on some 13,859 mu was about 60 per cent. One-tenth of the taxes on that land was remitted, and the remainder spread over the two following years.

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Cholera and plague were not frequent visitors to Ting Hsien, at least in epidemic proportions, as only eight visitations were reported in the list of calamities, and three of those were in 1918, 1919, and 1920. Plague was reported in 1554, 1581, 1821, 1918, and 1919, cholera in 1885, 1895, and 1920.

In 1918 Ting Hsien was one of the plague quarantine centers established along the railroad. All small stations were closed and passengers

731 164 were allowed to board the train at the larger stations only after careful examination, which often included a quarantine of four to five days. Passengers were required to furnish their own food, though the railroad gave some help if the people had no money. Communication was cut between the city and some 47 places to prevent the spread of the disease. The work was carried on under a specially organized plague prevention bureau with a special staff of doctors, nurses, and police. The reported expenses amounted to $4,230, of which $1,452 was for special police service. After the epidemic was apparently well in hand, a new case upset matters, until it was learned that the new patient had broken quarantine by going over the back wall of the isolation house to talk to a sick relative.

The death rate was not given for 1918, but in 1919 some 446 persons died of plague in Tinghsien city and some five or six villages. The police compelled the people to clean the streets and their houses and they also distributed medicine provided by the hsien government.

731 Fourteen earthquakes were reported, but the records ordinarily made but little comment on them. Ting Hsien, being in the coastal plain, was not in a primary earthquake zone and generally has not been seriously damaged by any earthquakes that have been felt. The earthquake in 106 was the earliest recorded calamity. That quake and the one in 503 are said to have broken the Heng Shan, a mountain some 25 miles northwest of Ting Hsien. The earthquake in 777 lasted for three days. Those of 1679 and 1720 were heavy enough to damage the pagoda. The top of the pagoda was shaken down in 1720. The latest earthquake mentioned was in 1882.

Two storms caused enough damage for them to be entered in the list of calamities. One was in 1723, the other in 1818.

Heavy thunder storms have been included in the list of calamities. One was recorded in 1562. In 1577 the Stone Buddha Temple, Shih Fo Szu, was hit by lightning and "the dragons rose up." In 1666 the pagoda was struck. In 1856 lightning set fire to the back hall of the examination buildings. In the fifth month of 1900, Boxer year, thunder was heard three times although no clouds were seen.

Snow is not an unusual occurrence in Ting Hsien, but ordinarily only a few inches fall at any one time. In 1713 snow fell in the fourth month while in the 12th month of the 24th year of Chia Ching, January, 1820, the snow was three feet deep.

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The pagoda has been the scene of two disasters, besides those connected with earthquakes and lightning. On certain of the festival days the people like to go to a high place to get the view. When the pagoda was in repair it was natural that large crowds would climb to the top. On the 16th day of the first month of 1568 and again on the fifth day of the fifth month of 1773, the rumor got around that the magistrate was coming to lock the doors. Panic seized the people and in the scramble to get out many were crushed to death. The toll was 237 in 1568 and over 300 in 1773.

Extra good years, Ta Yu Nien, have been included in the list of calamities. Bumper crops evidently made marketing a difficult problem and forced prices to the minimum. The first of the good years listed was 1051, the third year of the Sung Emperor Huang Yu. The bumper crops were probably influenced by the floods of the previous year. The next good year was 1543, almost 500 years later. In 1562 the records say one tou of grain cost 25 cash and one tou of beans seven cash. In 1690 one tou of rice cost three cents silver and one tou of miscellaneous grains 1.5 cents silver. It seems strange to find this listed as a good year as there was a spring drought that warranted the remitting of the first half of the taxes, and there had also been a drought the year before. One-half of that year's taxes were remitted and grain was given out from the 10th month to the fourth month of 1690. The other specially good years were 1729, 1815, and 1856.

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The records report that wild bears were seen in Ting Hsien in 1585.

The hsien histories do not include in their list of calamities the times when Ting Hsien suffered loss at the hands of the military forces, but experience in North China from 1924 through 1931 made it evident that, whenever there was fighting in an area, levies were made on the countryside for carts, animals, manpower, and food. Money was secured by special assessments. Many a community had to pay large sums for being protected from threatening troops, or for being "saved" from the armed forces driven out by the new occupation forces. The amounts lost by the local population apparently varied from a small to a total loss. When Yen Wang "swept the North" the eaves swallows nested in the trees, because no houses were left in the area.

Levies were made on the countryside in October, 1927, when there was fighting between Chang Tso-lin and Yen Hsi-shan, and again in May, 1928, when the Nationalist forces, the National Revolutionary Army,

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722 military campaign by a 100 per cent extra land tax levy in 1926 and a 200 per cent extra levy in 1927, or the $65,718 extra land tax collected in 1928 for rehabilitation and relief.

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TABLE 113. CALAMITIES IN TING HSIEN, 106-1926[1]

A.D.		A.D.		A.D.	
106	Earthquake	1441	Drought	1655	Floods
284	Hail	1447	Locusts	1656	Floods
431	Drought	1520	Locusts	1666	Lightning
463	Frost	1543	Good year	1679	Earthquake, drought
476	Hail	1553	Drought, floods	1682	Hail
483	Drought	1554	Plague	1685	Drought, floods
503	Earthquake	1556	Floods	1689	Drought
510	Drought	1560	Locusts	1690	Drought, good year
521	Floods	1561	Drought	1693	Floods
528	Earthquake	1562	Thunder, good year	1696	Floods
575	Floods	1568	Pagoda panic	1697	Floods, earthquake
682	Hail	1577	Hail, thunder	1705	Locusts
776	Earthquake	1581	Earthquake, plague	1708	Drought
777	Earthquake	1586	Drought	1711	Drought
838	Locusts	1591	Locusts	1713	Snow
938	Drought	1597	Floods	1720	Earthquake
943	Locusts, drought	1607	Floods	1723	Storm, floods
945	Hail	1617	Locusts	1724	Floods
998	Hail	1623	Earthquake	1725	Hail
1037	Earthquake	1627	Earthquake	1729	Good year
1048	Floods	1638	Drought	1773	Pagoda panic
1050	Floods	1640	Drought	1775	Floods
1051	Good year	1642	Drought	1794	Floods
1268	Hail	1645	Floods	1801	Floods
1290	Drought	1646	Locusts	1802	Locusts
1292	Locusts	1653	Floods	1808	Floods
1326	Hail, drought	1654	Drought, floods		
1327	Hail				
1407	Floods				

[1] Hsien histories.

(continued on next page)

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CALAMITIES

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(TABLE 113 CONTINUED)

A.D.	
1815	Good year
1817	Drought
1818	Storm
1819	Snow
1821	Plague
1822	Floods
1823	Floods
1825	Locusts
1829	Earthquake
1856	Lightning, good year
1858	Hail
1859	Locusts
1867	Floods
1870	Drought
1877	Drought
1878	Drought
1879	Floods
1882	Earthquake, frost
1885	Cholera
1891	Locusts
1895	Cholera
1900	Boxers, thunder, foreign troops
1915	Hail, locusts
1916	Locusts
1917	Hail, floods
1918	Hail, plague, locusts
1919	Locusts, plague, floods
1920	Locusts, cholera, drought
1921	Locusts
1922	Locusts, frost, drought, floods
1923	Hail, floods
1924	Floods
1925	Drought, floods
1926	Hail, floods

Totals for 1,820 Years	
Floods	35
Droughts	28
Locusts	21
Hail	17
Earthquakes	14
Epidemics	8
Thunder	5
Frosts	3
Pagoda	2
Snow	2
Storms	2
Boxers	1
Good years	7
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four-horse wagon to bring the dragon king back. After his return the water came back to the spring.

At flood times the rivers have a tendency to break out of the old silted channels. In 1794 the T'ang broke through the dykes to the south and ran past the city wall into the Meng Liang. In the flood of 1801 it took a new channel to the north of its old bed, so that villages that had been on the north bank were then on the south bank. The damage caused by that flood was so extensive and so well remembered that a monument was erected in Tung Pan Ts'un stating:

> In the sixth year of Chia Ch'ing the T'ang took a new bed. The crops were damaged and destroyed so that the people had no clothes and no food. Houses fell down. The people complained. The site of a large village became the bed of the river. The people wanted to escape. The village had about 200 families. About 100 families left. Now [1853] only 20 to 30 families remain.

The T'ang would probably have changed its course after the floods of 1917 and 1924, except that the breaks in the dykes were repaired and the river forced back into its old bed.

In 1810 the people of T'ang Hsien blocked the watercourse and cut off the flow of the T'ang to Ting Hsien. They were sued by the residents of Ting Hsien, but the case was not decided until 1826. Then the decision was in favor of Ting Hsien.

Through the years, the T'ang and Sha have had their part in China's history. Being two of the larger streams crossing the western part of the coastal plain, they have been advantageously placed for defense and have been the scene of numerous battles. The chief of these from the 6th to the 17th century are listed in the historical resumé in Chapter XIX.

The inhabitants of Ting Hsien lived in the walled city and its three suburbs, east, south, and west, 10 market towns, and 443 villages. The towns generally, but not always, had more families than the villages, did more business than the villages, had more stores, and had a larger proportion of non-farm families. All of the towns had markets, but so did 72 of the villages. As the differences between the towns and villages were largely those of degree we have grouped them together in our studies and counted them as 453 politically organized residence and farming areas. How they were distributed in the hsien is shown by the map on page 5.